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#### March 2002

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#### A. PERSONAL

Bour Haifs, Israel, 1955. Domestic Status: Married F 3

#### B. EDUCATION

1979 - 1982 - B.Sc. in Physics and Mathematics - Tel Aviv University, magazin com lande

1932 - 1984 - M.So. in Physics - Tel Aviv University, magnum com laude 1984 - 1988 - Ph.D. in Physics, Tel Aviv University, summa cum laude

#### C. PROFFESIONAL EXPERIENCE

1988-1991 - IBM, T. J. Watson Research Center, NY, USA 1991-1995 - Senior Lecturer, Physics Dep. Technion-IIT, Israel

1995-1999 - Associate Prof., Physics Dep. Technico-UT, Israel 1999-present - Professor, Physics dep., Technion - IIT, Israel.

#### D. INVITED TALKS IN INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES-RECENT 5 YEARS

France-Ierseli meeting, Paris - France, Mesoscopic Fluctuations in the 1995 Ground State Energy of a Disordered Quantum dot.

Aronev Memorial Symposium, Zichron Ya'akov - Israel. Spactroscopy of 1995 Disordered Quantum Dots.

Conference on Quantum Chaos in Mesoscopic Systems, Senta Barbara -1996 USA, The chemical Potential of A Strongly Interacting 2D Fermion Layer.

- 1946 Adriatico Research Conference on Mesoscopic Phenomena in Complex Quantum Systems, Trieste Italy, Excitation Spectrum and Ground State Level Statistics of Disordered Quantum Dots.
- 19:16 International Conference on "Correlated Electrons in Systems of Reduced Dimensionality", Triesto-Italy, The Thermodynamics of Strongly Correlated Fermions.
- 1946 International Conference on Electron Localization and Quantum Transport in Solids, Jaszowice Poland, Experiments on Level Statistics in Diffusive Quantum Dots.
- 19-16 International Conference on Electron Localization and Quantum Transport in Solids, Jaszowiec Poland, The Compressibility of Fermions at Large T<sub>s</sub>, Numbers.
- 1997 Minerva Conference on Mesoscopic Physics, Ellat Israel, The Coulomb Blockade Revisited.
- 1997 Japan-Israel binational conference on mesoscopic physics, Beer Sheva Israel, The Role of Coulomb Correlations in Quantum Dots.
- 1997 The annual meeting of the Ismail Physical Society, Beer Sheva Israel,

  Correlation Energy of Strongly Interacting Fermions at High Y<sub>s</sub>

  Numbers.
- 1997 International workshop on "Direction in Mesoscopic Physics", Leiden-Holland, The Coulomb Blockade, Revisited.
- 1997 International Conference on Mesoscopic Physics, MESO97, Chemogolovica Russia, Correlation Energy of Strongly Interacting Fermions at High T<sub>s</sub> Numbers.
- 1997 International conference on "Pundamental Aspects of Applications of Single Electron Devices". Lyngby - Denmark, Ground State Properties of a Quantum Dott.
- 1997 International Conference on Strongly Coupled Coulomb Systems,
  Chestrut Hill USA, 2D Farmions Experiment (presented by Dr. S.
  Shapira).
- 1998 International Summer School on Coherence in Electronic Systems, Ustron, Poland, Coherence and Dephasing in Low Dimensional Systems.
- 1998 European Conference on Mesoscopic Physics, PHASDOM-98, Neuchstel, Switzerland, Self Assembly of Nanoscale Electronics by Biotechnology.

- 1948 Nordic-Baltic Physical Society meeting, Nyborg, Denmark, Self Assembly of Nanoscale Electronics by Biotechnology.
- international Conference on the Physics of Semiconductors (ICPS

  Jerusalem, Israel, Coulomb Drag in the Quantum Hall Effect Regime.
- 1998 International Workshop on "Disorder and interactions in Quantum Hall and Mesoscopic Systems", Santa Barbara, USA, Coulomb Correlations in a Dilute 2D Fermion System.
- 19:18 International Workshop on "Electron Tomanission through Molecules and Interfaces", Zamach, Israel, Self assembly of Nanometer Scale Electronics using Biotechnology.
- 1999 The annual meeting of on the American Material Research Society (MRS), San Francisco USA, Self Assembly of Nanometer Scale Electronics by Biatechnology.
- 1999 The International Conference on the Physics of Two Dimensional Blectronic Systems-RP2DS 22, Ottawa Canada, Self Assembly of Nanometer Scale Electronics by Biotechnology.
- 1999 International workshop on "New Developments in Quantum Hall Effect",
  Minneapolis USA, Electron-Hole Drug in the QHE Regime.
- 1999 The German Physical Society Meeting, Minerator, Germany, Self Assembly of Molecular Scale Electronics by Biotechnology.
- 1999 Nato Advanced Research Workshop, Klev, Ukraine, Some Aspects of Molecular Self Assembly.
- 1939 Rencontres de Moriond, Les Ares Prance, Matal-Insulator Transition in 2D?
- 1999 The First Stig Landqvist Research Conference on the Advancing Frontiers in Condensed Matter Physics Quentum Phases in Electron Systems of Low Dimensions, Trieste Italy, The Compressibility of Strongly Corvelated 2D Fermions Near the Metal Insulator Transition.
- 1999 The "Microelectronics Advanced Research Initiative" workshop on Nanofabrication", Macaeille France, Self Assembly of Molecular Electronics by Biotechnology.
- 1999 IST99 Conference on "wet frontiers in microelectronics the interface between biology and microelectronics", Helsinki Finland, Concepted and Practical Challenges in the Self Assembly of Microelectronics Using Biomechnology.
- 2000 Nato Advanced Research Workshop on "Frontiers in Nano-Optoelectronics Systems", Kyev Ukraine, Self Assembly of Molecular Scale Electronics by Biotechnology.

2000		Winter School on the physics of low dimensional systems, h	tamendorf
•	٠	Austria, Molecular Electronics by Biotechnology.	•

- International workshop on "Chaos and Interaction in Quantum Dots", 20110 Minnesota, USA, Condensation of Positively Charged Colloids on DNA.
- MesoSpin 2000, Curtura, Italy, Condensation of Positively Charged 2010 Colloids on DNA.
- Japan-Israel binational meeting, Tokyo Japan, Condensation of Positively 20:X) Charged Colloids by DNA.
- 20:11 10th Brazilian Workshop on Semiconductor Physics, Guaruja SP Brazil, Self Assembly of Molecular Scale Electronics by Biotechnology.
- Rencontre de Moriond meeting. Les Ares France, Evidence Against 2011 Metal-Insulator Transition in Two Dimensional Holes.
- American Physical Society meeting, Seatle Washington USA, Evidence 2001 Against Metal-Insulator Transition in Two Dimensional Holes.
- NATO summer school, Windsor England, Self Assembly of Molecular 2091 Scale Electronics by Biotechnology.
- Workshop on Nanoscience, Dresden, Garmany, Summary and Perspectives 200I of Nanotechnology.

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#### F. PATENTS

Four patent applications on applications of intenfacing molecular biology with melecular electronics.

DNA bridge under a flow parallel to the electrodes shows it to be attached solely to the electrodes. The method does not guarantee a single DNA bridge. However, in situ video microscopy and imaging of the resulting silver wire by atomic force microscopy (AFM; see below) reveal a silver bridge only in places where DNA was previously fluorescently imaged. We also tried stretching the DNA between two electrodes in the reverse order, performing hybridization and ligation of the disulphide-derivatized oligonucleotides to the long DNA molecule before it was applied to the sample (see Methods section). The binding of the derivatized λ-DNA in this case was again aided by an induced perpendicular flow. Both methods work equally well.

To instill electrical functionality, silver metal is vectorially deposited along the DNA molecule. The three-step chemical deposition process (see Fig. 1 and Methods) is based on selective localization of silver ions along the DNA through Ag+/Na+ ion-exchange1s and formation of complexes between the silver and the DNA bases 19-21. The Ag<sup>+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> ion-exchange process is monitored by following the almost instantaneous quenching of the fluorescence signal of the labelled DNA. The ion-exchange process, which is highly selective and restricted to the DNA template only, is terminated when the fluorescence signal drops to 1-5% of its initial value (the quenching is much faster than normal bleaching of the fluorescent dye). The silver ion-exchanged DNA is then reduced to form nanometre-sized metallic silver aggregates bound to the DNA skeleton. These silver aggregates are subsequently further 'developed', much as in the standard photographic procedure, using an acidic solution of hydroquinone and silver ions under low light conditions<sup>22,23</sup>. Such

### **DNA-templated assembly** and electrode attachment of a conducting silver wire

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Recent research in the field of nanometre-scale electronics has focused on two fundamental issues: the operating principles of small-scale devices, and schemes that lead to their realization and eventual integration into useful circuits. Experimental studies on molecular to submicrometre quantum dots and on the electrical transport in carbon nanotubes1-5 have confirmed theoretical predictions of an increasing role for charging effects as the device size diminishes. Nevertheless, the construction of nanometre-scale circuits from such devices remains problematic, largely owing to the difficulties of achieving inter-element wiring and electrical interfacing to macroscopic electrodes. The use of molecular recognition processes and the self-assembly of molecules into supramolecular structures<sup>9,10</sup> might help overcome these difficulties. In this context, DNA has the appropriate molecular-recognition<sup>11</sup> and mechanical<sup>12-16</sup> properties, but poor electrical characteristics prevent its direct use in electrical circuits. Here we describe a two-step procedure that may allow the application of DNA to the construction of functional circuits. In our scheme, hybridization of the DNA molecule with surfacebound oligonnelectides is first used to stretch it between two gold electrodes; the DNA molecule is then used as a template for the vectorial growth of a 12  $\mu m$  long, 100 nm wide conductive silver wire. The experiment confirms that the recognition capabilities of DNA can be exploited for the targeted attachment of functional wires.

The first step in the construction of the silver wire involves the self-assembly of a DNA template connecting two gold electrodes 12-16 µm apart (see Fig. 1 for an outline of the procedure). First, 12-base oligonucleotides, derivatized with a disulphide group at their 3' end, are attached to the electrodes through sulphur-gold interactions. The electrodes are each marked with specific but different oligonucleotide sequences. A connection is then made by hybridizing two distant surface-bound oligonucleotides with a 16  $\mu m$  long and fluorescently labelled  $\lambda$ -DNA that contains two 12-base sticky ends, where each of the ends is complementary to one of the two different sequences attached to the gold electrodes. Hybridization on both ends is facilitated by covering the electrodes with an aqueous solution containing the \u03b4-DNA and inducing a flow perpendicular to the electrodes, thereby stretching the  $\lambda$ -DNA. molecules in the flow direction (other stretching methods can be used; for application of an electric field, see ref. 17). The flow is terminated when a single DNA bridge is observed by fluorescence microscopy (see Fig. 2), usually after a few minutes. Curving of the

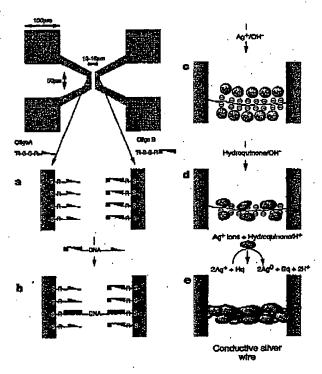


Figure 1 Construction of a silver wire connecting two gold electrodes. The top left image arrows the electrode pattern (0.5  $\times$  0.5 mm) used in the experiments. The two 50 μm long, parallel electrodes are connected to four (100 × 100 μm) bonding pads. a. Oligonucleotides with two different sequences attached to the electrodes, b, x-DNA bridge connecting the two electrodes. c, Silverion-loaded DNA bridge, d, Metallic silver aggregates bound to the DNA skeleton, e, Fully developed silver wire. A full description of the preparation steps can be found in the Methods section.

### letters to nature

solutions are metastable, and spontaneous metal deposition is normally very slow. However, the silver aggregates on the DNA act as catalysts and significantly accelerate the process. Under the experimental conditions, metal deposition therefore occurs only along the DNA skeleton, leaving the passivated glass practically clean of silver. The silver deposition process is monitored in situ by differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy and terminated when a trace of the metal wire is clearly observable under the microscope. The metal wire follows precisely the previous fluorescence image of the DNA skeleton. The structure, size and conduction properties of the metal wire are reproducible and dictated by the 'developing' conditions.

AFM images of segments of a 100 nm wide, 12 µm long wire connecting the two gold electrodes are presented in Fig. 3. The images are representative for the whole wire. As clearly seen, the wire consists of grains of 30–50 nm diameter deposited along the DNA skeleton. We have also fabricated wires as narrow as 25 nm but AFM imaging showed the silver coating to be discontinuous, with some gaps between silver grains.

Two-terminal electrical measurements were made on the silver e shown in Fig. 3. The resultant I-V curves, obtained with an apparatus having an internal resistance of  $\gg 10^{13} \Omega$ , are displayed in Fig. 4. The curves are highly nonlinear and asymmetric with respect to zero bias. The shape of the curves depends on the voltage scan direction indicated by arrows. Approaching zero voltage from large positive or negative bias, a zero-current plateau develops with differential resistance larger than  $10^{13} \Omega$ . At a higher bias, the wire again becomes conductive with a differential resistance somewhat lower than in the original bias polarity. Repeated measurements of a given wire, in the same scan direction, yield reproducible I-V curves.

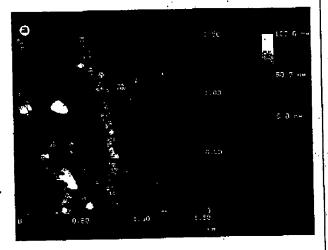
The origin of the extremely high resistance at small bias, and of the dependence of the current on the voltage scan direction, are not yet clear. If one invokes the Coulomb blockade phenomenon and the grain charging energy, ~0.1 eV, as inferred from the grain size in the AFM images, the large plateau requires simultaneous charging of a large number of grains in series. It is not clear, however, whether such a mechanism can yield a history-dependent I-V curve. Another source of nonlinearity might be inter-grain boundary resistance due to silver corrosion. The shape of the I-V curve could then be attributed to electrochemical processes in the cor-

ion barriers. The length of the zero bizs plateau in different wires may vary

Figure 2 Fluorescence image of the DNA bridge. Fluorescently labelled (Yoyo-1, Molecular Probes, Eugene, Oragon) & ONA is stretched between two gold electrodes (dark errips), 16 µm apart. The electrodes are connected to large bonding pads 0.25 mm away.

from a fraction of a volt to roughly 10 V, depending on the silver growth conditions. The solid line in Fig. 4b depicts, for example, the I-V curve of a different wire in which the silver growth on the DNA was more extensive. Compared with the first wire, the plateau was reduced from about 10 V to 0.5 V, and the differential resistance at voltages beyond the plateau was reduced from 30 M $\Omega$  to 7 M $\Omega$ . By applying voltages higher than about 50 V to the wires that went through extensive silver deposition, the plateau could usually be permanently eliminated to give ohmic behaviour (dashed-dotted line in Fig. 4b).

Each experiment was accompanied by two control measurements to investigate whether either the DNA bridge or the deposited silver on their own could contribute to the observed electrical transport. The two insets in Fig. 4b show the  $I\!-\!V$  curves obtained for a  $\lambda\!-\!{\rm DNA}$ bridge in the absence of silver deposition (bottom inset) and for a neighbouring device without a DNA bridge that underwent the full silver deposition treatment (top inset). Both control measurements consistently yielded a resistance higher than our measurement capabilities, 1013 Q. (Note that the current scale in both insets is 100 times smaller than in the main graph.) Our direct d.c. measurements showed the 16 µm long double-stranded DNA to be practically insulating. It is not clear how to compare our measurements with previously published electron-transfer rates obtained from optical measurements on short DNA segments24-26. Perfect correlation was found between the appearance of a DNA bridge in the fluorescence image, the formation of a silver wire connecting the



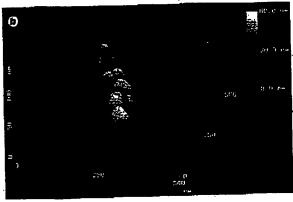


Figure 3 Atomic force microscopy images (Dimension 3000, Digital instruments) of a silver wire connecting two gold electrodes 12  $\mu$ m epart. a, 1.5  $\mu$ m; b, 0.5  $\mu$ m field sizes. Note the granular morphology of the conductive wire.

electrodes, and the resulting conduction between the electrodes. These observations, in conjunction with the control experiments, prove that the electric current is carried solely by the silver deposited on the DNA bridge.

The remarkable recognition capabilities of DNA, used in this study to construct a metal wire connecting two electrodes, have also been exploited in other recent studies. The use of DNA has, for example, allowed researchers to organize colloidal particles into macroscopic crystal-like aggregates. and to dictate the shape and size of semiconductor nanoparticle assemblies. The use of a DNA polyanion as a template for the assembly of electronic materials is not limited to metals. In another study, we have used a DNA template to fabricate a poly-(p-phenylene vinylene) (PPV) filament by attaching a positively charged pre-PPV polymer to the stretched DNA and subsequently treating it to form a highly photoluminescent PPV wire.

The construction of functional nanoscale electronic devices is likely to require self-assembly processes. The present study provides a step towards such developments; we have demonstrated that DNA is a sophisticated substrate for the targeted attachment of a conductive metal wire whose width is well below the minimal dimensions accessible by standard, large-scale microelectronics technology. Even though the hysteric I-V curves that we observe are interesting, low-resistance, ohmic metal wires are essential for

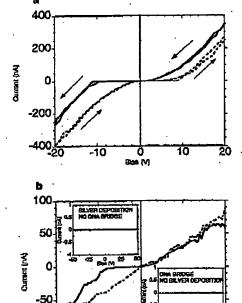


Figure 4 Experimentally observed I-V curves, a, Two terminal I-V curves of the silver wire shown in Fig. 3. Arrows indicate voltage scan direction. The two curves in each direction present repeated measurements thus demonstrating the stability of a given wire. Note the different asymmetry pertaining to the two scan directions, b, I-V curves of a different silver who in which the silver growth was more extensive than in a. Extensive growth resulted in a narrower current plateau (solid curve), on the order of 0.5 V, and a lower differential resistance (7 M2 versus 30 M0 in a). By applying 50V to the wire, the plateau has been permanently eliminated to give an ohmic behaviour (deshed-dotted line), over the whole measurement range. I-V curves of a DNA bridge with no silver deposition, and silver deposition without a DNA bridge, are depicted in the bottom and top insets, respectively. In both cases, the sample is incutating.

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future applications. Such wires might be accessible by making use of different growth conditions, different metal types or post-growth thermal treatments.

#### Methoda

Sample preparation. A glass coverslip is immersed in furning nitric acid for 10 min, rinsed with DI water, immersed in a 1M NaOH solution for a further 10 min and rinsed again with DI water. The cleaned glass is dried thoroughly and then passivated against spurious DNA binding by immersion for 12 hours in a 1:5 viv solution of trimethyl chlorosilane (Sigma) in tetrachloroethane (Sigma). The sample is then rinsed carefully several times with tetrachloroethane and isopropanol and dried thoroughly. Electrodes, 12 µm or 16 µm apart, are defined on the coverslip by standard photolithography and subsequent high vacuum deposition of a 50 nm gold layer on top of a 10 nm titmium adhesion layer. A lift-off process then follows.

Constructing the DNA bridge (see Fig. 1). One gold electrode is wetted with a 10<sup>-4</sup> µl droplet of an aqueous solution containing 0.2 nM of a 5'-GGGCGGCGACCT-3'-disulphide oligonucleotide (Oligo A) and 10 mM NaCl. Similarly, the other electrode is marked with a solution containing 5'-AGGTCGCCGCCC-3-disulphide oligonucleotides (Oligo B). Both oligonucleotides are synthesized using a 3'-C6-disulphide CPG (Clontsch Laboratories, Palo Alto, California). After rinsing, the structure is covered by a 100 µl solution of \(\lambda\text{-DNA}\) (0.2 pM, Promega, Madison, Wisconsin) in 10-100 mM NaCl. The \(\lambda\text{-DNA}\) has two sticky ends that are complementary to Oligos A and B. A flow perpendicular to the electrodes is induced by micropipetts suction of the solution. The flow stretches the \(\lambda\text{-DNA}\) molecules perpendicular to the electrodes, leading to their hybridization with Oligos A and B attached to the two electrodes.

Hybridization and ligation before application to the electrodes. The two types of oligonucleotides are phosphorylated at their 5' ends using T4 polynucleotide kinase (New England Biolabs, Beverly, Massachusetts). The 5' phosphate of the λ-DNA is removed using Shrimp alkaline phosphatuse (Amersham, Arlington Heights, Illinois) to prevent ligation of its complementary sticky ends to form a cyclic DNA. One type of oligonucleotide is then hybridized with the λ-DNA (10²-fold excess of oligonucleotides) while the solution (sodium phosphate buffer and 1M NaCl. pH = 7) slowly cools down (16 hours) from 75 °C to 4°C. The hybridization is followed by ligation using T4 ligase (New England Biolabs) at 16 °C for 16 hours. The solution is then filtered (Microcon-100, Amicon, Beverly, Massachusetts) to remove excess free oligonucleotides. The second type of oligonucleotide is then hybridized and ligated with the other sticky end of the λ-DNA using the same procedures.

Silver deposition. Being a polyanion, the DNA bridge is loaded with silver ions by  $\mathrm{Na^+/Ag^+}$  ion exchange using a 0.1M AgNO<sub>3</sub> basic aqueous solution (ammonium hydroxide, pH = 10.5). The silver ion/DNA complex is reduced using a basic hydroquinone solution (0.05M, ammonium hydroxide, pH = 10.5) to form small metallic silver aggregates bound to the DNA skeleton. The DNA templated wire is 'developed' using an acidic solution (pH = 3.5, citrate buffer) of hydroquinone (0.05M) and silver ions (0.1M) under low light conditions to give a silver wire along the DNA skeleton.

Imaging setup. An inverted microscope (Axiovert 135, Zeiss), equipped with 100x oil-immersed objective, 100-W mercury lamp with filters, image intensifier (C-2400 Hamamatsu) and video processor (Omnex, Imagen Instrumentation), is used for fluorescence imaging of the DNA molecules. The same microscope and objective, with the proper DIC slide, and a 100-W halogen lamp are used for DIC imaging of the silver wire.

Electrical measurements. All electrical measurements were carried out between two bonding pads (see Fig. 1) using a 4145 HP parameter analyser with internal resistance ≥ 10<sup>10</sup> Ω and current resolution of 10 fA.

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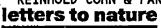
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